THE PHI DELTA KAPPAN

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On the Calendar

NATIONAL BOYS AND GIRLS WEEK
April 29 to May 6, 1944

Theme: "Youth Power for Days Ahead"

The activities of Boys and Girls Week are designed to bring to the attention of the community the problems, interest, and recreations of its youth, and also the youth-serving organizations which labor for the development of good citizenship and character in growing boys and girls.

Boys and Girls Week deserves the serious attention and active cooperation of all who are interested in the welfare of youth. The unprecedented rise in juvenile delinquency, and the wartime dislocation of the normal life of boys and girls, have created problems for youth that make it evident that more assistance is needed now than was necessary in times of peace. The activities of the week are designed to bring to the attention of the community the problems, interests, and recreations of its youth, and also the youth-serving organizations which labor for the development of good citizenship and character in growing boys and girls.

Boys and Girls Week affords a splendid opportunity for the presentation of a program which will focus the attention of the community on its greatest natural resources—its boys and girls. As a result, a year-round program of activities can be planned for the welfare of the community's youth.

Helpful suggestions for carrying out the program may be obtained free of charge from the National Boys and Girls Week Committee, 35 E. Wacker Drive, Chicago 1, Illinois.

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Quoted From Chapter News Letters

Abstract of address before Alpha Xi Field Chapter on "What Does Russia Want?" by Michael Brickley, Sacramento Junior College.

"According to the Speaker, Russia wants:

Other nations to come to an understanding with Russia, both for co-operation in war and future peace.

Russia wants territorial security from future wars, and 'windows' for future peace relationships, identical for both purposes.

"In the Baltic, Russia wants:

1. Part of Finland to safeguard Leningrad and communications with Murmansk and Archangel.
2. Absorption of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania, with promise of 'states' rights.

"In Central Europe she wants:

1. Almost the Eastern half of Poland (Congress Poland).
2. Bukovina from either Rumania or Czechoslovakia.
3. Bessarabia from Rumania.

"In the Black Sea region she wants:

1. Free passage to the Mediterranian in war and peace, and so probably the internationalization of the Straits.
2. At least an equal voice in the disposition of Balkan Problems.

"In Iran she wants:

1. At least access for commercial purposes to the Persian Gulf.
2. Probably a share in the Persian Gulf oil.

"In the Far East she wants:

1. All of Sakhalin.
2. At least a commercial corridor thru Manchuria.
3. Warm water ports at Dairen and Port Arthur.

"In Present and Future international relations, she wants:

1. Forgetfulness and forgiveness of the early mistakes of Soviet History, 1917 to 1930.
2. Recognition of the right to practice communism, socialism or any other doctrine, with a promise to make no attempt to enforce it on other peoples outside Soviet territory.
3. Co-operation from the rest of the World in the establishment of iron-clad peace and security.

"Russia's demands are not unreasonable from her standpoint and if complied with she will prove worthy of our confidence."

George F. Holtfrerich, 1st Lt., USAAF, wrote his chapter that there are "quite a few of the Brothers at the Base" where he is located (Santa Ana Army Air Base). "In fact," he says, "it reminds me of P.D.K. meetings to go to Officers Mess at dinner and see many of those with whom we broke bread at the P.D.K. round tables of the past. The time will come when we will all rejoin you, but until then keep the good work going even if the efforts seem fruitless."—From *Alpha Epsilon News Letter.*

Perhaps Phi Delta Kappa can answer the oft-heard question: "Is teaching essential war service?" Phi Delta Kappans are pledged to such a belief. It would be almost unbelievable as well as tragic, if men so pledged would be remiss in their allegiance and support. Alpha Alpha Chapter has an excellent field of potential membership. Let's make is one of the chapters that shows—at least—*no decline!*—From *Alpha Alpha Field Chapter News Letter.*

Render Unto Caesar

IT CAME TO PASS in these days, in the great war upon the Hitlerites, that the schoolteacher said unto herself, "Behold, this is Tuesday, which being interpreted, is war-stamp day."

And she took her seat at the desk and laid thereon her war-stamp record book. Then she saith unto her students which were of tender years, "Lo, it is war-stamp day and those students who peradventure have brought no money, not any lunch money, nor any picture money may go to their seats. Nay, I will not even take Junior Red Cross money, nor any can of peas for the hospital until all the war-stamp money be counted and delivered unto the principal."

Therefore did she set out the ice cream box with the slit in the top to hold the money, and the students did crowd about her with many pennies and nickels which they set about steadfastly to drop under the desk, and the teacher set down duly in her book what each student had brought.

But it happened that some of the students who had no war-stamp money, but had milk money, did not go straightway to their seats, but lingered to see the counting of the war-stamps. And suddenly the teacher did find upon her desk a penny, and when she found that it did not make balance with the rest, she inquired in a loud voice, "Whose penny is this?"

And a student in a small voice saith, "It is my milk money."

Then the teacher lifted up her voice and cried, "Did I not tell all the milk children to take their seats, or did I? Verily, you will get me all mixed up in my figures." And by reason of her violence, the milk children departed to their seats, there to take up arguments about a long green pencil and a short yellow one without any eraser, and the teacher cried out after them. "Hush, hush! Of what value is a pencil on war-stamp day? It is meant that we attend to war-stamps only."

Then the door did open and the hot lunch messenger from above did enter. So therefore, the teacher had to make her order and tell, in a humble voice, the children with lunch money to come up. And lo, some of the war-stamp children joined with them and also bought hot lunches. But they were too young to know for a surety whether their penny should go to the messenger, or to the lady in the cafeteria, or indeed, to their teacher, and there was much argument between them.

Now when the hot lunches had departed, the teacher finished with the war-stamps and did call the children together about her with milk pennies, and each child put down a penny, and lo, a certain child said he had already paid for his milk, but the teacher believed him not, because last year she had his brother, who likewise did make false witness about money.

But nevertheless, the teacher, being weak, did pay for his milk because he was thin in the face, and then the teacher did verily spill the beans, for she took from her own pocket book to make change, and then she was utterly lost because the war-stamp money came out a dollar too much, notwithstanding the picture money was all under the blotter and the war-stamp money had not moved out of the box. And the teacher marveled and said, "Behold, maybe I am a Kaiser."

Then the children who had paid a penny for milk departed to their seats and as they departed the teacher counted them, and lo, the sum was the same as the milk money. And the teacher lifted up her eyes and was about to render thanks when a boy came in and said, "Hath anyone lost a mitten?"

And the teacher cried unto him, "Get thee out of here, for thou knowest that thou should'st take mittens to the office, neither tap on doors which are busy with war-stamps."

And the boy responded not a word, but as he departed with the mitten he met boys coming in with 27 milk bottles. Verily, I say unto you, they met in the doorway, the one coming and the one going. And at the other door appeareth a big girl with 9c for the Junior Red Cross. So therefore, the teacher took out her Junior Red Cross book, and set down the 9c. And she did smile through the collection on her desk that had thus been made and said, "Lo, the moneys are now counted, and we will say our morning prayer."

And the prayers were said for the service men and behold, the children drank their milk. A boy said, "You have not heard our reading class read." And he spake the truth. And another said, "Behold, I have lost my lunch ticket." And the teacher said (not aloud), "Behold, I have lost my mind?" To the child she said, "Verily, thou shall find your ticket right under your desk." (For that was the place it always was at that hour.) And she did not say a word about the old saying of the prophets, "Verily, if your head were not screwed on tight you would lose that," for this child was not to blame for the war.

And lo, the reading class of the busy bees did as-

(Concluded on page 43)

Close-Knit Language Partnership

By LOUIS FOLEY

IS ENGLISH a peculiar language as compared with others? Apparently a good many people think so. There are indeed certain things about English which set it apart from most of the other important languages in the world. Strangely enough, however, its truly distinguishing characteristics are seldom mentioned. Many remarks made by popular writers, or even by reputable scholars, seem to imply that our language belongs in a class by itself, but it commonly happens that the apparent basis for such a belief is either inaccurate and misleading or else something upon which English has no monopoly at all.

As a reason for considering the English language unique, surely nothing has had more publicity than the conception of it as being made up of elements from "many other languages." This notion, as it is ordinarily expressed or understood, is likely to be misleading in more than one way. In the first place, the mere adoption of a word or two from some strange dialect represents no particular "influence" upon our speech. In the second place, this has been done by all languages about which we know anything since ancient times. Whenever some special product of a hitherto obscure country has attracted the attention of the outside world, it has quite naturally carried with it the native name for which other tongues had never developed an equivalent. A conspicuous example is *tobacco;* this word of West Indian origin, easily recognizable under slight variations of form, long ago established itself in many languages all over the world. It is perfectly clear that the practice of incorporating occasional foreign names for foreign articles or ideas has been common enough in all the principal modern languages. Far from differentiating English, this is something in which our speech resembles even those with which it has otherwise little in common.

For a simple demonstration of this common property in elements from heterogeneous sources, one has only to look up a few items in an ordinary French dictionary. There one will find, for instance, Russian *vodka,* Japanese *kimono,* Turkish *harem,* German *zinc,* or Indian *tapioca,* in exactly the same spelling to which we are accustomed. In a dictionary of some other language, the familiar items would not all be the same ones, but others could be found instead. The sort of international exchange thus registered has taken place in all directions. To glance outside the realm of our whole European linguistic family, we might think of Turkish. On the one hand, of course, we know that that language has contributed a considerable number of words to the speech of Europe and America. On the other hand, Turkish has adopted the French word *groupe,* as English did long ago, it has incorporated a number of other French expressions, it uses the Italian terms for *lemonade* and *factory,* and incidentally it employs the English word *coke*—though only as a name for fuel, not the name of a beverage! So our language is not at all peculiar for having accumulated bits of vocabulary from here, there, and everywhere.

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The growth of our language has often been made to seem much more complicated than it actually was. In reality, the *important* sources of English words have been comparatively few. The whole picture has been greatly confused by rather loose and undiscriminating reference to "derivation." If finding the origin of a word means tracing its ancestry as far back as possible—often through so many changes that there remains hardly a shred of the primitive sense —then the "etymology" of the word may have very little to do with its use in our speech. However interesting the story may be for its own sake, it may tend to obscure the exact question of how the word came into English.

Much has been said about the "Greek" and "Arabic" words which we use as technical terms in biology, medicine, mathematics, and other sciences. The fact is that before English incorporated these expressions, they were already international, part of a learned dialect belonging to scholars generally throughout Europe. If we are to consider "derivation" at all realistically, surely the natural point of view for English-speaking people to take is simply the point of view of the English language. From that point of view—the only one, after all, which can be very consistently held—the question is primarily from what language a word *came into English.* With the situation thus clarified, the direct, the important, the

real sources of the English vocabulary stand out for what they are.

In connection with the teaching of both Latin and English in our schools, it has become traditional to emphasize "the Latin in English." Words are summarily described as "Latin" if they can possibly be traced back to that language, no matter how indirectly, without discriminating as to the way in which they became a part of English speech. Seldom is there any recognition of the important fact that *most* of the so-called Latin words in English came into our language from French. While it is true that in the main the French words now assimilated in English had at one time developed from Latin originals, that consideration seems rather beside the point. During the centuries that they had been French words, before entering English, many of them changed so much from the Latin, not only in form, but in meaning and use, that any mention of the remote ancestor is rather irrelevant. It was certainly not because of the Latin descent that our language adopted them. Indeed, along with French words ultimately derived from Latin, English took in no small number of other French words which had never come from Latin at all. Independently of any more distant indirect source, they simply came into our language as the French words that they happened to be. Often they represented ideas which the ancient Latins could never have foreseen.

Perhaps the most important fact about them is that as a class they entered English *orally*. That is no doubt why most of the French words imbedded in English are never thought of as being "foreign" at all; they belong as truly to our speech as any other words that we have. Consider such common offhand examples as *table, chair, fruit, grape, peach, sugar, garden, hoe, carrot, air, music, court, suit, pen, pencil, large, fine, pure, color, sound, place, people, language, power, space, form, very.* Not all of these words came into French from Latin, but they all came into English from French.

It is not a question of minimizing the element in English which can quite legitimately be called Latin. In fact there is a small handful of very common words from Latin— for instance *wall, street,* and *wine* —which entered our language earlier than any contribution from Anglo-Saxon, for England was a Roman colony during centuries before the Anglo-Saxons arrived there. Much later, a certain number of Latin words were brought in by Roman missionaries, who naturally found no equivalents in Anglo-Saxon for various expressions in the terminology of the Church. Most of the truly Latin words in English, however, were introduced by scholars, or came through translations of learned books. They are likely to seem abstract, pale, colorless, because they do not have their roots deeply planted in our everyday life; they are comparatively "bookish" in tone. We acquire them by reading or going to school or listening to lectures, instead of possessing them by just naturally growing up among English-speaking people. These words from Latin tend in large measure to belong to the vocabulary of scientific terminology, of laboratory technique, of abstract analysis, rather than to the living body of English speech. They are often extremely useful, but not essential to the same degree as our ordinary words of everyday life. To be sure, in this changing world no vocabulary will always "stay put," and sometimes technical terms which were originally very scholarly will find their way into the commonest popular speech.

It is customary to speak of the Anglo-Saxon element in English as "native," and to say that French, Latin, or other "foreign" words have been "borrowed." This manner of speaking is amusingly inaccurate if one interprets it literally. The native language of England was Celtic; few traces of it remained after the completely foreign Anglo-Saxon invaders came from the continent in the fifth century and drove out the Celts. Anything "borrowed" might be supposed to be taken only temporarily, to be given back sooner or later—if we are honest! In truth the Anglo-Saxon part of our speech does not belong to it any more genuinely than do most of the so-called "foreign" words which were long ago thoroughly assimilated.

Attempts often have been made to measure the different ingredients in English by percentages. Such efforts are bound to be futile, for they can start only from the crude assumption that words are equal units, whereas they are nothing of the sort. Sometimes one or two words will carry most of the meaning in a sentence, while the others do little more than adjust these principal words to the situation in which they are placed. The really interesting thing about our French and Latin words in English is not so much the large number of them that we have (though that in itself is impressive enough), but their importance to the *meaning* of almost any sentence in which they occur.

That is a point which investigators usually seem to overlook entirely. Yet it can be clearly demonstrated by analyzing practically any kind of reading-matter. As soon as we begin to condense any piece of writing, by removing superfluous words, immediately the ratio of French and Latin words will definitely increase in proportion to the Anglo-Saxon. Indeed, it not infrequently happens that one or two

French or Latin words carry nearly all the real thought-content of a statement, while the Anglo-Saxon words serve mainly to put the idea in its setting, to add the mere grammar, to give emotional flavor to the essential thought, or to make it sound more like English. If you examine the Anglo-Saxon words in any ordinary paragraph, you will find that a large share of them are impossible to define, because they have no real meaning in themselves. They merely supply grammatical construction. Such, for instance, are our definite and indefinite articles, the most common prepositions, or most uses of the verb *to be*. Aside from more or less purely grammatical functions, our Anglo-Saxon words commonly represent simple and primitive ideas, like *earth, water, man, horse,* or *town*. The words *soil, liquid, person,* and *city* have come to us from French. *Father, mother,* and *brother* are Anglo-Saxon, but it is to the French language that we owe *parent, uncle,* and *cousin*. In dealing with all sorts of ideas, it is only by using the French and Latin elements that we can express shades of meaning in the actual words. For it is characteristic of Anglo-Saxon English that the meaning often depends very largely upon accent or intonation, so that the *written* sentence may be far from clear or may seem to mean something not intended.

English is not "unique" in having "borrowed" from French and Latin. Even German, which has so often been held up as an example of a language which has kept itself "pure," has adopted a great many words from these very same sources. The qualities which *really* mark English as "peculiar," by comparison with other tongues, belong in general to the Anglo-Saxon element which all the incalculable "foreign" influence has never completely changed. The genuine peculiarities of English are in such matters as accentuation, word-order, rhythm—the way words are spoken and the patterns on which they are joined together. There is indeed a curious quality about English—curious, that is, from the point of view of a non-English-speaking person—which you may call "freedom" if you like it, or "looseness" if you do not —and this quality is a part of our Anglo-Saxon heritage.

Yet it is inaccurate to assume, as many have done, that French influence has merely contributed vocabulary without affecting the syntax. The falseness of such a notion may be illustrated by one of the rare Anglo-Saxon words which have retained their form during a thousand years—the preposition *of*. The point is that the *use* of the word has entirely changed. Instead of meaning "from," as in Anglo-Saxon, it long ago became practically equivalent to French *de*. In Old English religious literature one finds the expression *rode-tacn,* which might be translated literally as "rood token." Now, however, any English-speaking person would express the idea by saying "the sign of the cross." Here we may notice not merely the words *sign* and *cross,* but the word-order which corresponds exactly to that of the French phrase *le signe de la croix*. The English idiom for this idea is neither Anglo-Saxon nor Latin, but French in its plan of construction.

French has indeed supplied English with an astonishingly large part of its grammatical equipment. When a new word is coined in modern English, the kind of grammatical ending which it is almost certain to receive will show the profound influence of French upon the very *structure* of our language. We are not given to forming new words nowadays with endings like *-dom* or *-hood* or *-ness*, on such Anglo-Saxon patterns as *kingdom* or *brotherhood* or *kindness*. Instead, we are extremely likely to use some one of the many terminations inherited from French, as are *-ity, -ance, -et* or *-ette, -ery, -ment, -tion, -ation, -age, -ine, -ure, -ic (ique), -able, -al, -ess, -ee, -eer (ier), -ism,* and various others. Classical-minded people may prefer to consider some of these endings as "Latin" or "Greek," but they became established in English because they had been made thoroughly familiar by the adoption of so many French words which were formed in similar ways.

Like other languages, English has absorbed items here and there from varied sources. The direct Latin contribution has been of no small importance. The true nature of English, however, is that of a close-knit partnership between the elements from its two principal sources, Anglo-Saxon and French. Any number of ready-made expressions might be taken as significant symbols of this organic fusion. In *Holy Bible,* for example, the word *holy* is developed from Anglo-Saxon; the word *bible* passed into Latin from Greek, but it came into English from French, and from our point of view is a French word. Or suppose we say instead "the sacred book"; in that case we have *sacred* from Old French and *book* from Anglo-Saxon. Again, if we spoke of French and Anglo-Saxon as the "abiding elements" of English, we should be using a word from Anglo-Saxon and another from French. Or consider the expression already applied to this combination of languages, "a close-knit partnership"; here we see a word from each in the compound *close-knit,* whereas in *partnership* a word from French is pieced out with an Anglo-Saxon termination. Basically and most importantly, our modern English language is indeed a close-knit partnership of its fundamental and abiding elements, Anglo-Saxon and French.

Streamlining Geometry

By ERNEST V. CARSON

"SPEED UP production; do the job more efficiently, prepare to win the peace, but right now win the war, ———." These urgent battle cries are constantly ringing in our ears. Undoubtedly school men are responding with whole-hearted patriotism and zeal. But whether we like it or not, some of the wartime habits we acquire will stick after the war; we can never go back to a prosaic rule-of-thumb procedure, least of all in the command of the fundamental processes of mathematics. Before the advent of the present speed-up program, before the "Schools-at-war" name-plate had been affixed to our schools, one of the vital problems of the high school was to justify the end-product of a four-year "grind," to outfit the graduate with a fundamental knowledge which would help to place him as a useful individual in his community. Business and professional men have for years assisted these young graduates by hiring them in their offices and stores. Many have made good, but too often we are faced with a discouraging report somewhat as follows: "What do you teach them up there in high school? They can't read, they can't write, they can't do simple arithmetic, they know but very little about meeting the public."

These accusations are coming in a slightly altered form from men in a position to know concerning inductees and war-workers. Advancements in the armed forces and in industry are retarded because of incomplete preparation. Certainly, with the ever-increasing demand for government reports on business transactions, it appears essential that the business men and women of the very near future obtain a skill in logical thinking, in literate expression and in mathematical calculation. One of the most natural high-school subjects for teaching these necessary skills is geometry.

The Plane Geometry text by Breslich recently adopted for use in Kansas high schools has by now become familiar to all of our mathematics teachers. It has probably come in for its just proportion of "cussing" and "discussing" by experienced as well as beginning teachers. While any text has its strong and weak points, in my opinion this book has dutifully fulfilled a wartime need. Furthermore, the subject of geometry cannot be limited to any one text, no matter how adequate the book.

Normally, sophomore students who have studied Elementary Algebra as freshmen, would begin their experience in modern geometry well prepared for anything they might expect to meet in a second year mathematics course. But this year is not a normal year in any sense of the word. To begin with, sophomore students are not prepared to handle the algebraic solutions required, probably for two main reasons: (1) the text for ninth-grade algebra which just finished the seventh and last year in Kansas schools left many topics in algebra untouched, and (2) the quality of wartime instruction by inadequately trained teachers has taken its toll in the mathematical illiteracy of our students.

★ *Ernest V. Carson is Superintendent of Schools, Hanover, Kansas, and a member of Phi Delta Kappa.*

Despite these difficulties, we are asked to give our pupils a thorough foundation in mathematics and science, to prepare pre-inductees, potential defense workers, and postwar planners for their respective jobs. The school book commission has recognized the urgent mathematical need and has risen to the occasion in the adoption of the Breslich Geometry, and, what is perhaps more important, the Mallory book for beginners in algebra. Undoubtedly the needed adjustment of students in their adaptation of mathematics to life situations will come in the near future, specifically by the end of the 1944-45 term of school, because by that time the present ninth-year students will be nearing the end of their tenth-year geometry texts.

However, the present tenth-year pupils are entitled to receive as thorough training as possible under the circumstances. This involves a workable understanding of the fundamentals of arithmetic, an ability to sketch and construct geometric figures, a measurable amount of logical reasoning, and knowledge of certain processes in elementary algebra. Breslich goes so far in streamlining his course as to suggest the use of time-saving devices such as the protractor, parallel ruler, triangles, the pantograph, etc. Not that the fundamental geometric constructional tools should be ignored, but the "mass production" short-cuts must be encouraged where they can be profitably employed.

The former school of thought, good (?) for pupils twenty years ago, insisted that the figure for every theorem should be accurately drawn with no other

tools than the compass, straight-edge, pencil and paper. How well do I remember the scoldings of my geometry teacher because of the absence of what she called "essential auxiliary lines of construction." Her theory was that if a construction did not reveal numerous arcs and extended lines, the student must have guessed at measurements. Woe to any student who used a protractor to find any angle of the families 60° and 90° divisible by 2, 4 or 8. A flunk for the day's work to the pupil who used a ruler to measure the length of a line, or whose parallelogram clearly showed its altitude to be the width of a ruler. There was an occasional student who mentioned the facility of drawing parallels on a drawing board with a T-square or who suggested the use of the standard triangles to depict a 30°-60°-90° or isosceles right triangle. The answer was always the same, "That is not permitted because it is not a geometric construction."

The entire reasoning which undoubtedly will shape the procedure in future geometry classes is built upon practicality, not custom. If geometry is to teach a technique of logistic thought, and we have justified it for that very reason, then there must be an end in view which ties in with the student's live realities. The following is intended only as a guide to an end, and the activities mentioned I have used for a number of years with gratifying results: But more especially this year have I extended appreciably an application of common useful tools which reduce learning friction to a minimum. These include the 75-yard measuring tape, the stop-watch, drawing board, T-square, parallel ruler, pantograph, protractor, triangles, and tracings.

Here is a partial list of streamlining devices:

1. The use of color for separate parts of drawings.
2. Student-constructed wooden and paper models of common geometric figures.
3. A set of sticks with evenly spaced holes to demonstrate polygons.
4. Analysis as first step in problem solution.
5. Practical problems of direct and indirect measurement on school grounds.
6. Drill and application of short-cut methods in arithmetic.
7. Short cuts in the use of tools for construction.

Mention of a few applications of each item listed will clarify my meaning.

1. In proof of congruent triangles formed by the diagonal of a parallelogram, place the whole sketched figure on the board in white, retrace diagonal with brown, and base and top of parallelogram with blue; then the arcs of equal alternate-interior angles used are marked with red, and finally as proof nears conclusion, the other equal sides of the triangles are colored yellow. Sometimes entire areas may be colored, and this is especially useful when one area overlaps the other, as in two equal triangles on a common base; thus if one triangle is colored yellow, the other blue, then the common area will appear green.

2. It is true that Plane Geometry does not delve far into solids, but students have no trouble seeing lines or areas indicated on the "face" of a solid. Models commonly constructed include; scalene triangles, acute or obtuse—right triangles, especially 30°, 60°, 90°, and 45°, 45°, 90°—eight types of quadrilaterals—regular n-gons of specified number of sides—circles, and some of the more common solids such as cylinders, cubes, parallelepipeds, cones, and simple pyramids. For presentation of special construction work an extra grade is credited to the pupil.

3. Six hardwood sticks, each 30 inches long, ¾ inch wide and ⅛ inch thick are prepared with 1/16 inch holes drilled at spaces of one inch their entire length; small nails are inserted for spacing. This permits the demonstration of various triangles including the isosceles, right, and scalene; also quadrilaterals from the general quadrilateral to the square; parallel lines and transversals may be shown, and the pentagon and hexagon formed. This is the best device I have seen to clarify the study of exterior angles of polygons.

4. After studying the first few congruency theorems, many succeeding propositions are easily approached by analysis. By this method the pupils are kept from applying false assumptions. Problems immediately after the earlier theorems are more quickly solved if the pupil uses analysis in connection with a suitable drawing. If he knows what he is trying to do, he will surely be interested to cast about to find the steps needed to do it. Furthermore, life situations are solved by analysis. Even so simple a thing as finding the distance between towns A and B is thus solved by a resident of the town B. The solution of problems on construction, loci, parallel lines, ratio, and even much of congruency are faciliated by a proper analysis.

5. Lengths of sidewalks and a rehearsal of the materials and cost of their construction furnish a concrete example of practical measurement. Interest is increased in measuring diagonals and studying right triangles if a string or tape-line is stretched from the upper to lower diagonal corners of the classroom, and lengths and areas compared. Also the height of the local water tower may be measured by application of trigonometric ratios at the location of the tower. I require my pupils to carry the 30°-60°-90°, and 45°-45°-90° triangles and a 75-yard tape on these field trips. Nor do we neglect the oppor-

tunity for indirect measurement of out-of-doors distances across ravines, ponds, etc.

6. Constructional engineers, no doubt, need to carry a slide-rule and pocket handbook of mathematical tables; but the high school sophomore has no use for these things. It is probably essential that the pupil know or be able to find quickly squares of numbers up to 16^2, cubes up to 10^3, and be able to estimate by interpolation the roots of frequently appearing surds. Furthermore, a thorough drill is necessary in handling simple proportions, and cross multiplication. Divisions and multiplications by 10^n should always be done by marking off decimal points on the number as given. Similarly, operations with numbers like 25, 37½, 667, etc., should be done by recognizing them as fractional parts, e.g., 25 is ¼ of 100, 667 is ⅔ of 1,000, etc. Operations with 5 involves a number ending in 5 or 0, and any number whose digits sum to a number divisible by 3, is divisible by 3. If students have taken prime factors carefully, starting with the smallest prime, reduction is somewhat simplified. For example.

Exercise: Factor, 324.

2)324
2)162
3)81 Use 3, next number above 2, and not 9.
3)27
3)9
3 Answer, 324=2×2×3×3×3×3.

7. It is my belief that the fundamental constructions should first be done with nothing more than the compass, straight-edge, paper and pencil. This should apply to bisecting, adding and subtracting angles and lines, and to early problems on copying or transferring figures. But for most problems where the accuracy of the figure is not the spot-lighted item, very neat and sufficiently accurate drawings can be made with other tools:

Parallel lines—opposite edges of ruler or parallel ruler or T-square on drawing board.

Perpendiculars—right triangle.

30°, 60° or 45° angles—from the triangles.

Other angles—protractor.

Circles—draw around coins or other circular objects.

Tracings—Frequently a geometric figure is discovered in a book inaccessible for study unless copied. An accurate copy may be had by placing a sheet of onion skin paper above the picture and tracing through onto a paper beneath a carbon sheet. It desired the tracing may be enlarged for study.

Summarizing: the advantages of using "mass-production" methods are as follows:

A. Pupils are made to realize a definite link between school and life.

B. Coloring and proper labeling focus the attention on the essential topic.

C. Objects made and handled by pupils impress them as the fruit of their own efforts.

D. Analysis is the element of successful procedure in geometry and in many life situations.

E. Short cuts in arithmetic save time, pencils and worry, and, properly applied, speed up results.

F. Modern tools are here for the use of man, and the extent to which a drawing serves its intended purpose is not usually dependent on the method in which it was produced.

G. Finally, the more quickly a satisfying result can be attained, the more pleasant and useful is the attitude of the pupil, because of the realization that he has accomplished something before he forgets what he started out to accomplish.

A Sailor's Prayer

Now I lay me down to sleep
In storm-tossed bunk on ocean's deep;
If I should die before I wake,
I pray another's hand will take
The torch I took from fallen hands
Of Flanders Fields and other lands,
Pearl Harbor and Corregidor,
The Solomons and many more.

Do not waste time in idle tears—
They have not slept these many years,
Those men in Flanders Fields who died
That men in freedom, side by side,
Might live in unity and peace.
Let not your endless vigil cease
When war is won, free men restored,
Lest some dictator lift his sword
Again to smite a sleeping world.
Let freedom's banner stay unfurled
And guard the peace our fight will win
Else we shall join our comrades in
That restless sleep beyond the grave
Until the world itself can save.

These thoughts have I so far from Home
On ocean's endless white-flecked foam,
Of you, the friends I'm fighting for.
Please, God, make this the end of war
For all mankind. Help those who live
To win the peace, and so to give
A better life for everyone—
An end to strife with sword and gun.

Before to sleep, just one more thing,
Dear God, a message you could bring
To friends at home, to you so near—
My Mom and Dad and Wife, so dear;
If I should die before I wake
You win the peace, for freedom's sake!
Then I shall not have died in vain
And you won't have to fight again.

M. W. Robb, Lt. (j.g.) U.S.N.R.
—From *Public Schools Bulletin*, Evansville, Ind.

The Secondary Schools of Éire

By THOMAS W. SHEEHAN

A PROGRAM of secondary school studies that had remained unaltered for nearly twenty years would ordinarily present plenty of problems to one interested in the school in a dynamic world. Such a program confronted Irish educators and no profound study was required to discover that the school offering failed to meet the demands of newer conditions of living.

Educational problems have been considered of first importance by leaders in Éire since the inauguration of the Irish Free state in 1922. After reorganizing the elementary school curriculum so that subject matter was related more directly to modern life in Ireland, the newly created National Department of Education in 1924 undertook reforms in secondary education to correlate with the new elementary school program. Up to this time the offering of the secondary schools consisted of isolated and rigid courses laid out by the year and with very little or no attempt made to co-ordinate the courses over the entire secondary school period. The new Department of Education launched junior and senior curricula. The junior curriculum is planned for three or four years' duration, depending upon the pupil's scholastic standing, and leads to the examination for the intermediate certificate which a pupil ordinarily receives at the age of sixteen years. This junior curriculum is organized with constants and electives for the purpose of offering a general education. The senior curriculum is planned on a two-year basis and leads to the leaving certificate granted at graduation from the secondary school. In the senior department there is great freedom in electives, for its purpose is to present such an offering of courses that the student, under guidance, will satisfy his vocational needs.

Prior to 1924 books were prescribed and examinations were based on these texts. The Department of Education has abolished prescribed texts in all subjects. Instead of issuing courses for teachers to follow slavishly, representatives of the Department receive from the teachers suggested courses for the year in each subject. Much encouragement is offered the teachers to initiate plans although there must be final approval on content and methods from the supervisors of the Department. The old rigid examinations based on memorizing material from prescribed texts have been abolished and emphasis is now placed on the new type of questions involving ability to solve problems. Teachers regard the examinations not simply as a means for measuring pupil progress, but seize the opportunity offered for pupil guidance and for an evaluation of their own teaching methods.

★ *Thomas W. Sheehan, Professor of Education, Niagara University, New York, visited Ireland four times to study the school system. He observed the work of all grades of schools and conferred with teachers, administrators, and government officials. He is a member of Phi Delta Kappa.*

The increased flexibility of the secondary schools promoted during the past twenty years is an attempt to extend their advantages to more and more young persons. For high-ranking pupils in the upper standards of the elementary schools, an articulation has been effected between the two systems. Capable pupils in approved classes of the elementary schools may have their work recognized and then the secondary school certificate examinations may be taken on the same basis as granted pupils from the secondary schools.

To strengthen the professional status of teachers, the National Department of Education introduced a plan requiring that schools recognized by the Department employ a number of registered teachers in proportion to the number of pupils enrolled. A registered teacher is one whose name is entered in the "Register of Intermediate Teachers." To attain registration, the Minister of Education must pass on the teacher's university degrees, the subject or subjects and class in which honors were obtained, the university diploma in the theory and practice of education, evidence of a competent knowledge of the Irish language, and the total number of completed years in teaching approved subjects in recognized schools. The number of men teachers registered has increased from 643 in 1924 to 956 in 1942. For the same period, women teachers in registration increased from 755 to 923. This increase has been steady and indicates a progressive improvement in meeting the new and higher professional requirements.

Previous to 1924, secondary schoolteachers had not been paid by the State. Since that date, however, the State has required that teachers in recognized schools

be paid in accordance with a national salary schedule. The plan provides for State payment of yearly increments based on approval of the teachers' work by government supervisors. There is also provision for bonuses ranging from $75 to $150 annually given by the State for satisfactory teaching of subjects through the medium of the Irish language. This control of salaries by the State is an outstanding achievement because it must be remembered that secondary schools in Ireland are largely private enterprises built and maintained by Catholic teaching orders and Protestant corporations. The schools retain full autonomy in matters regarding the appointment of teachers and internal management. The State neither establishes nor finances the building or the maintenance of secondary school buildings. The main power the State has over secondary schools is through supervision of the teachers' teaching and the Department's curriculum in action. The resulting evaluation of the Department's supervisors determines the teacher's position in the salary schedule and the amount of State aid to the schools. This again has been a step toward stabilizing the teaching force through a systematic arrangement of salary schedules and through adequate provisions for tenure. The sense of financial security thus engendered, although tempered with a realization of the need for the supervisor's approval of the teaching, has been an aid in developing a stronger professional spirit. The salary plan has attracted many of the better university graduates to the profession. Irish leaders realize that the vital factor determining efficient schools is not so much buildings and books as a strong teaching force imbued with high professional standards. In 1929 the State took another forward step by establishing a voluntary pension plan for teachers. Both the schools and the teachers contribute to the fund.

Secondary education in Ireland is not free. Tuition varied from fifty or sixty dollars a year in day schools to about four-hundred-fifty dollars a year in boarding schools. From 1924 Irish educational leaders have striven to make the secondary school population more representative of the population as a whole. To supply funds for needy pupils of high academic standing, scholarships have been encouraged by the Department of education. During the school year 1941-42, the total number of scholarships held under awards by the Department and the county and city councils was 1,841. That secondary education has become more popular is evidenced by enrollment figures which increased from 22,897 pupils in 1924 to 39,537 pupils in 1943.

To staff the secondary schools with teachers properly qualified to teach through the medium of the Irish language has been a prodigious task. The scarcity of well-equipped libraries of books in the Irish language increased the difficulty. New works in history, geography and Latin with notes and vocabularies in Irish, had to be prepared. Of the 362 secondary schools in Ireland, about one-third now teach all subjects through the medium of Irish and another third teach about half the subjects in that language. About 65 per cent of the total number of secondary school pupils are in attendance at Irish and bilingual schools.

During twenty years, Irish educators have improved greatly the opportunities offered by the secondary schools. Every year an increasing number of pupils are enjoying the guidance of better trained teachers. Every year more and more pupils are studying the Irish language and receiving instruction through the medium of that tongue. This study and the stress placed on rural science are the chief means taken to attain one of the major objectives of these schools, i.e., the development of boys and girls who have pride in their country and who will bring clear and capable thinking to the solution of the problems connected with the great rural areas.

Render Unto Caesar

(Continued from page 35)

semble, and the bell rang for recess, and the teacher was glad, and she cried with a loud voice, "Do not run! Neither push, nor crowd any of your little friends, but get you forthwith into your ski pants, even unto the zippers down the legs, and get into your line. And moreover, do not get into any trouble on the playground, for verily I am going to lie down in the Teachers' Room. For the next week we shall have also Santa Claus buttons to prevent Tuberculosis among you, and also Christmas seals, for which ye shall bring other moneys. And harken again unto me, ye children, after thy teacher has finished typing at the ration board after school, she is thinking of going to work for Buick aircraft, for it is said that there is a hireling there, to sell milk and war-stamps and hot lunches and doeth no teaching at all of any kind, in his spare time."

—From *Public Schools Bulletin,* Evansville, Ind.

Destroyed

More than 1,000,000 books have been destroyed in British libraries in two years of German bombing, the National Central Library of London reports. Severely hit were the National Central Library (150,000 vols. lost), Birmingham National History Library (completely destroyed), and University College Library in London (100,000 vols. lost).

A Bridge of Friendship

From American boys and girls to those of conquered nations—a basis for permanent peace

A "LOSE THE WAR" Commission is already established and operating in Germany. The function of this commission is to manipulate the postwar economy of Europe so that, regardless of the results of the present armed conflict, the Nazis will win the peace for which the war is being fought.

Plans of the United States Committee on Educational Reconstruction to assist in forestalling this eventuality were discussed recently with educational leaders in the Bay area by Dr. Rheinold Schairer, visiting professor of education at New York University.

Schools Destroyed

Doctor Schairer pointed out that Hitler came to power in Germany by seizing the educational system and that in every conquered country his first act was to destroy the schools along with all educational leaders.

When the conflict ends, there will be no organized society in the conquered countries—no government, no banks, no industries, no monetary system, no food, no clothing, no schools, no teachers—and worst of all, no leadership of any kind to recreate a social economy. In these areas, Hitler's boast that if the Nazis go down all Europe goes with them is no idle boast.

Underground Movement

Fortunately there exists in all these countries a strong underground movement. In spite of the organized killings by the Gestapo, membership in the underground group exceeds 500,000 persons, all of whom, according to Doctor Schairer, have been tested in the crucible of war and have lived through the war years in continual and imminent danger of death.

This group, if adequately supported, is a dependable nucleus for the beginning of reconstruction.

Teacher Training

Plans are under way to send to American universities, among which is the University of California, qualified members of this underground group for training as teachers.

On their return to Europe they will become teachers of other teachers, and thus provide a basic organization for the reestablishment of school systems in the conquered countries.

★ *This abstract of address of Dr. Rheinold Schairer was written by Robert E. Brownlee, a member of Phi Delta Kappa and Curriculum Assistant, University High School, Oakland, California. It was published in Oakland Public Schools, the superintendent's bulletin.*

These prospective teachers will themselves need rehabilitation, says Doctor Schairer. While here they will live in American families and will have an opportunity to respond to the warm-hearted friendship of the American people.

Clothing for Children

To save the children of these conquered countries is the gravest problem of all. A newspaper, says Doctor Schairer, is often the only clothing available for the newborn baby.

He urges the schools to participate in a Bridge of Friendship program to help provide life's necessities for European children.

Plans are very simple and practical. Clothing for a child of a certain age, living in a certain country, will be assembled and shipped as a unit.

With each package will go a personal letter with the names of the persons contributing, so that the receiver may communicate with the giver, and thus contribute to the formation of a Bridge of Friendship between children and youth here and the youth and children of the conquered countries.

Permanent Peace

Doctor Schairer emphasizes that friendship between individuals in the various countries of the world is the only sound basis for permanent peace and that from this point of view alone the Bridge of Friendship program is one of the most essential aspects of postwar reconstruction.

Doctor Schairer is a personal friend of Mr. Willard E. Givens. His work is sponsored by the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration directed by Mr. Herbert Lehman and is being carried on in cooperation with the Save the Children Federation with headquarters in New York, and various other social welfare, religious and educational organizations.

Service

The following report of a chapter meeting seems to justify wider circulation than that enjoyed by the *Xi Chapter News Letter.* It is presented in full with a minimum of editorial revision.—*Editor.*

There are but few lasting satisfactions which come to an individual and one is the good that he can do for others. This is SERVICE. This ideal shines through all the great literature of the past and present and was taught by the lowly Man of Galilee when he said, "He who would become a leader among men must first become the servant of all." "We are busy in a work whose contributions to society are vital and genuine. Ours is an unselfish offering and the sphere of our activity must be above petty bickering. . . . " With this excerpt from the words of the Grand Proctor, Chairman James W. Mates set the tone of the meeting. . . .

There is a fine relationship, said Samuel P. Franklin, between the University of Pittsburgh School of Education and Phi Delta Kappa. . . . This socializing, as it were, is of great benefit to both. . . . There are three relationships worthy of note between the University and Phi Delta Kappa . . . (1) The training of leaders, part-time teachers and others in the field of education is a matter of interest and concern to both. . . . Phi Delta Kappa can help in the standards of selection for these leaders. . . . Phi Delta Kappa most certainly shares with the University in the training of teachers. . . . (2) The School of Education is to the schools as the experimental laboratory is to industry. . . . Phi Delta Kappa shares in the evaluation of these experiments as well as suggesting new ones. . . . (3) The School of Education and Phi Delta Kappa constitute educational pioneers . . . they cast the mould of generations to come. It is the duty of the educator "to reflect seriously and soberly upon the problems of the day . . . to set up a blueprint and to try to accomplish the pattern set up by that blueprint." . . . Phi Delta Kappa and the School of Education must work upon the educational end of that blueprint . . . become educational prophets . . . not just to predict but also to carry out. . . .

It has been said that an educated person is one who knows how to spell a word well enough to look it up in the dictionary . . . , according to Clarence M. Long. Webster gives several definitions of service: (1) "performance of duties." . . . This definition is exemplified in the oath of office taken by the Superintendents of Pennsylvania. . . . Every teacher and administrator knows whether he is performing his own job to the best of his ability and thus rendering service. . . . (2) "Make fit for service." . . . We are all acquainted with the requirements for the teaching profession and for admission to Phi Delta Kappa . . . by fulfilling and maintaining these qualifications we satisfy this definition. . . . (3) "Keep fit for service." . . . Members of Phi Delta Kappa keep fit by taking graduate work; writing articles for magazines; writing books; doing research; attending meetings; and by keeping physically and mentally fit. . . . (4) "Conduct that is useful to others" . . . (to illustrate this definition of service, Dr. Long asked for a show of hands by those who took part in the activities of various service organizations). . . . Almost everyone present participated in one or more of the organizations. . . . (5) "Duty in the Army and Navy" . . . Xi Chapter has sixty men on its Honor Roll. . . . Finally, Mr. Long asked: Why are these services rendered by a profession that is practically on the bottom of the pile financially?". . . . He answered this question by the illustration of "Canada Lee" as told by Bill Stern . . . "Built for Americans regardless of race, color or creed. . . . Built by an American who appreciates America," Phi Delta Kappans, let us continue to SERVE. . . .

Charles E. Manwiller was the third speaker. He said in substance, service is akin to leadership and school men have plenty of opportunities to demonstrate this in postwar planning, in research, and in other forms of service . . . we must put into action the perspective we have in this changing social order. . . . There are several problems to be met: (1) We must get down to fundamental democratic principles. . . . Numerous incidents and occasions show that we have not faced this challenge to administration. . . . (2) The Problems of Financing. . . . We must find new sources of revenue for schools and convince the legislators of the need for more money . . . the trend of the Federal government in the direction of money for quasi-educational organizations, or educational institutions directly under the control of the government in Washington, is quite clear. . . . (3) Postwar rehabilitation, demobilization, re-training of soldiers and defense workers, private investment, public works. . . . School men should help to plan these things. . . . We must give constructive help. . . . (2) The Problem of Financing. . . . We

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What Inflation Means

DR. WILBERT L. HINDMAN, Professor of Political Science of the University of Southern California, addressed Epsilon Field Chapter on "The Effects Inflation Will Have on the White-Collar Class." His address was reported by Garford Gordon in *Epsilon Field Chapter News Letter.* A part of the report is as follows:

There have been six controls operating against inflation. These are: price ceilings, rationing, subsidies, wage controls, taxes, and savings. A seventh point is the education of people to recognize the necessity of holding the line against inflation—a job that belongs to educators as well as to government agencies most directly concerned. It must not be thought that these controls have prevented inflation; they have merely enabled an orderly retreat to be made. Inflation has occurred and is occurring.

The two of these controls under most serious attack at present are subsidies and wage controls. Subsidies are amounts paid by the government to enable producers to make goods that they would not be able to make at ordinary prices. To pay higher prices would give extra money to those already operating at a profit, as well as to the marginal producer whose contribution is needed in wartime. By paying the latter a subsidy and keeping prices the same, a large saving is made by the government or general public who buys the goods. A second type of subsidy is a general subsidy designed to keep the cost of living down without injury to some class of producers such as farmers. If this subsidy is paid to the original producer, not only is his selling price reduced by this amount, but the percentage mark-ups made by processors, wholesalers, and retailers are prevented from rising. Thus the savings to the public exceed the amount of the subsidy. This means that the public as a whole saves more than the amount of the taxes paid to provide for the subsidy. It is, however, just this type of subsidy that is under the strongest attack.

Wage controls are desired for two reasons. One is to keep down the cost of production and hence the prices of products—or the amounts of subsidies necessary to keep the prices the same. The second is to reduce the amount of money available to workers. Since, during war, a large amount of the goods produced are not for general sale, money paid for producing them cannot be used for buying goods. That is, such money cannot be used unless prices are raised. For, if enough goods are not available to use up all the money available to purchase them, some money must be left over. It is this money that causes competition for the goods and price rises (or black markets).

One reason for attacks on these two anti-inflation weapons is that they have not always been administered wisely and equitably. However, this applies to price ceilings, rationing, taxes, and savings as well. The point to keep in mind is that even the best of methods can be maladministered, but improper use of a device is no argument against its value. The six controls against inflation are all vital, and they should all be kept.

Teachers and others on fixed—or at least inflexible—salaries, are more interested in preventing inflation than any other group. Their incomes in terms of money are not likely to rise. If prices do, they are in reality taking cuts in their incomes. Already, there are people in actual want as a result of this fact. A further rise in prices will make the condition worse. Unfortunately, special groups wanting their prices or wages raised are well organized, people on fixed income are not. It is time that they plan to get back of the government's efforts to prevent inflation.

Service

(Continued from page 45)

must re-shuffle objectives. . . . We have done a good job of planning but a poor job of salesmanship . . . (here, Dr. Manwiller gave several examples of changes in method and content in Languages, Social Sciences, and Sciences). . . . We as educators must construct a functional program for society and have it ready. . . . School men need to see the opportunities for service and adapt them to their communities. . . . Phi Delta Kappa can serve as a clearing house for ideas . . . in the performance of services to each other . . . and in the interpretation of ideas. . . . (5) The Adult Education Program in post-war planning . . . (a) to complete unfinished academic training . . . (b) to construct a comprehensive program of citizenship training for out-of-school use . . . (c) more exchange of teachers, at home and abroad . . . (d) teach an understanding of the trend toward centralization. . . .

Back the Boys With Victory Bonds.

Dictionary of Education

According to Dr. Carter V. Good, Chairman of the Dictionary of Education Committee, the tentative definition of "Education" to appear in the forthcoming dictionary is as follows:

education: (1) the aggregate of all the processes by means of which a person develops abilities, attitudes, and forms of behavior; (2) the social process by which people are subjected to the influence of a selected and controlled environment (especially that of the school) so that they may attain social competence and optimum individual development; (3) (teacher ed.) ordinarily, a general term for the so-called technical or more specifically classified professional courses offered in higher institutions for the preparation of teachers, and relating directly to educational psychology, philosophy and history of education, curriculum, special and general methods, instruction, administration, supervision, etc.; broadly, the total pattern of preparation, formal and informal, that results in the professional growth of teachers; see *teacher education.*

Other terms defined include the following as "samples" of what is to come. Each definition includes the specialized meanings of the term defined. The committee will welcome criticisms from members who can offer improvement of the tentative definitions given. Address suggestions to the Chairman of the Committee, Dr. Carter V. Good, Teachers College, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati 21, Ohio.

articulation: (1) the production of the sounds of speech by a modification of the stream of voiced or unvoiced breath, principally through movements of the jaws, lips, tongue, and soft palate; (2) a joint or connection between bones; (3) the relationship and interdependence existing among the different elements of the educational program; may designate the degree of relationship among the different curricular offerings or the extent to which the various levels of the educational system are so interrelated as to provide for continuous educational progress of pupils with a minimum of repetition and a maximum of efficiency.

course: organized subject matter in which instruction is offered within a given period of time, and for which credit toward graduation or certification is usually given.

course of study: (1) strictly, an official guide prepared for the use of the administrators, supervisors, and teachers of a particular school or school system in teaching a given subject or area of study in a stated grade or combination of grades; includes the aims of the course, the expected outcomes, and the scope and nature of the materials to be studied, with suggestions as to suitable instructional aids, textbooks, supplementary reading, activities, teaching methods, and suggestions for measuring achievement; (2) sometimes loosely and incorrectly used as syn. *curriculum.*

correlation: (1) (stat.) the amount of similarity, in direction and degree, of variations in corresponding pairs of observations in two series or variables; the strength of the tendency to concomitant variation; syn. *concomitant variation; covariation;* (2) the seeking and utilizing of points of contact and relationships between subjects (for example, history and geography, or history and English) in order to bring about associations in the general field of knowledge and to some degree among various parts of the curriculum, subjects being related in some degree but retaining their integrity.

integration: (1) the condition of an organism in which there is a continuous and adequate interactive adjustment of the physiological (glandular and chemical), physical (neuro-muscular), emotional, and mental processes, resulting in a state of harmony both with the internal and external environments; see *personality, integrated;* (2) (ed.) the process or practice of combining different school subjects and presenting them as aspects of one unifying project or activity; for example, teaching geography, history, English and arithmetic in connection with a study of the Panama Canal.

personality, integrated: an active, adapting personality characterized by unity of action wherein the responses of the various parts have meaning only in terms of their relation to the functioning of the whole; that is, all of the tensions and forces that play a part in human life, physical, spiritual, social, emotional, moral, aesthetic, etc., work together in harmony with the purposes, aims, wants, desires, and needs of the individual concerned.

orientation: (1) the act of determining one's course or position, whether actually, as in finding the direction of the compass in which to go, or figuratively, as in adjusting to a confusing situation, or coming to an understanding of a problem; (2) determination of the relations of objects or data to one another; (3) capacity to estimate oneself correctly in the environment with reference to location, persons who should be recognized, and approximate time; (4) the process of making an individual aware of such factors in his school environment as rules, traditions,

and educational offerings, for the purpose of facilitating effective adaptation.

program of studies: (1) a number of courses properly organized into learning units, intended to be pursued by pupils and presumed to be the best method of attaining specified educational objectives; may also include out-of-school activities sponsored by the school; (2) a descriptive listing of courses being offered. Sometimes used as syn. *school program.*

project: a significant, practical unit of activity having educational value, and aimed at one or more definite goals of understanding; involves investigation and solution of problems, and frequently the use and manipulation of physical materials; planned and carried to completion by the pupils and teacher in a natural, real-life manner.

time schedule: (1) a written plan or statement, prepared in advance, showing the activities taking place during each portion of the school day, week, month, or year; (2) a plan of dividing the total time allotment for each school subject or activity into daily learning periods of suitable length; (3) (pupil trans.) a time arrangement for loading or unloading pupils at designated stops along the school bus route.

unit: (1) a major subdivision of a course of study, a textbook, or a subject field, particularly a subdivision in the social studies or sciences; (2) an organization of various activities, experiences, and types of learning, around a central theme, problem, or purpose, developed cooperatively by a group of pupils under teacher leadership; involves planning, execution of plans, and evaluation of results; see *project;* (3) a basic measure used in calculating the amount of credit to be assigned to any particular course, or the number of graduation credits earned by a pupil or student in completing a course; variously defined, as follows: (a) in secondary education, one *unit* equals approximately 120 hours of classroom or laboratory work in a given subject, which is the amount of time spent in a class that meets for one period daily during the entire school year; (b) in higher education, according to local usage, one *unit* may equal one hour of class or laboratory work per week during one term, semester, or school year; syn. *unit of work; unit of credit.*

Worth Thinking About

For every American who had a working knowledge of Japanese in 1941, there were 100,000 Japanese with a working knowledge of English.

The National Opinion Research Center, University of Denver, reports almost 8 out of 10 Americans polled approve Federal aid to public education.

About 18,000 high-school pupils have quit Indiana schools since Pearl Harbor to go to work. Special night courses are planned for some of these youth.

The University of Kiev, sacked by retreating Germans, is being rapidly rebuilt by the Russians.

Educational attainment among males 20 to 44 years old in the United States in 1940 ranged from a median of 10.9 years (the equivalent of almost 3 years of high school) for those 20 to 24 years old, to a median of 8.6 years (the equivalent of more than 8 years of grade school) for those 40 to 44.

The median number of years of school completed by all persons 20 years old and over in the United States was 8.8.

More than 1,600,000 man-years of college education will be lost by 1945, the U. S. Office of Education estimates. Assuming that the war continues until 1945 and that selective service operates substantially as it did in 1943, Federal statisticians say that 1,400,000 man-years will be lost by undergraduate students; 250,000 man-years will be lost by graduate students because of the war.

According to the Office of War Information, Federal Security Agency, the enrollment in the public high schools for the year 1943-1944 is 5,761,000, or about one million below the peak enrollment of 6,714,000 in 1940-41, a preliminary estimate made by the U. S. Office of Education of the Federal Security Agency indicates, the F. S. A. said recently.

The number of Ohio State University former students giving their lives in World War II has already passed the total for all of the first World War, according to records compiled by the alumni office. The total for 1917-18 was 135, whereas the total for the present war up to February 4 was 138. More than 7,000 Ohio Staters are in the service, according to latest tabulations made by the university.

Child Labor Manifesto: The National Child Labor Committee (419 Fourth Avenue, New York City) has issued a "child labor manifesto" urging schools and civic groups to unite in protecting children from excessive war work and exploitation. The Committee urges groups to:

1. Establish local advisory councils on child labor;
2. Organize "stay-in-school" campaigns;
3. Initiate action to extend vocational counselling services in the schools;
4. Survey the work school children are doing outside of school hours;
5. Develop cooperative programs of school and part-time supervised work.